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A Quantum Algorithm Detecting Concentrated Maps

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We consider an arbitrary mapping f: {0, ..., $N-1$} → {0, ..., N − 1} for $N = 2^n$, n some number of quantum bits. Using N calls to a classical oracle evaluating $f(x)$ and an N-bit memory, it is possible to determine whether $f(x)$ is one-to-one. For some radian angle $0 \le \theta \le \pi/2$, we say $f(x)$ is θ – *concentrated* if and only if $e^{2\pi i f(x)/N} \subset e^{i[\psi_0-\theta,\psi_0+\theta]}$ for some given ψ_0 and any $0 \le x \le N-1$. We present a quantum algorithm that distinguishes a θ-concentrated $f(x)$ from a one-to-one $f(x)$ in $O(1)$ calls to a quantum oracle function U_f with high probability. For $0 < \theta < 0.3301$ rad, the quantum algorithm outperforms random (classical) evaluation of the function testing for dispersed values (on average). Maximal outperformance occurs at $\theta = \frac{1}{2}\sin^{-1}\frac{1}{\pi} \approx 0.1620$ rad.

Key words: concentrated maps; Deutsch-Jozsa algorithm; Deutsch's algorithm; one-to-one mappings; quantum computation; quantum oracle; roots of unity.

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1. Introduction

In recent years, much progress has been made in the study of quantum computation [1,2]. The first algorithm arguing for computational speed-up due to quantum mechanics was discovered in 1985 [3]. Deutsch considered a mapping with two inputs and two outputs. An oracle, which one might think of as a classical black-box, evaluates functions of a bit by inputting $b \in \{0, 1\}$ and outputting $f(b) \in \{0, 1\}$. Two calls to such an oracle are required to learn whether f is one-to-one. The calls compute $f(0)$ and $f(1)$, and then the one-to-one property holds when the values are distinct. Since quantum mechanics is linear, a quantum function evaluator (quantum oracle) must act on superpositions of states.

$$U_f(\alpha|0,0\rangle + \beta|1,0\rangle) = \alpha|0,\ f(0)\rangle + \beta|1,\ f(1)\rangle \quad (1)$$

A single call to this quantum oracle allows one to determine whether $f(0)$ and $f(1)$ are distinct [2, pg.36]. Several years later, Deutsch and Jozsa generalized the algorithm to allow for multiple inputs and two outputs [4]. Specifically, they describe a multi-argument function as balanced if its image holds two elements and the preimage of each is the same size. Deutsch and Jozsa's algorithm then distinguishes between a constant and balanced function using a single quantum oracle call. Further generalizations [5] distinguish between functions which are constant or else map onto an evenly spaced subset of the unit circle $\{|z| = 1\}$.

We present a variant of such algorithms. Specifically, suppose that we have a function f: {0, 1, 2, ..., N − 1}

$\rightarrow \{0, 1, ..., N-1\}$, where $N = 2^n$ for n some (integer) number of qubits, so that the n-qubit state space $\mathcal{H}_1^{\otimes n}$ is N dimensional [2]. Let $\omega = e^{2\pi/N}$ be the (2^n)th root of unity, and choose $\psi_0 \in [0, 2\pi)$. We say such an $f(x)$ is θ – *concentrated* about ψ_0 if and only if

$$\omega^{f(x)} \in \exp(i[\psi_0 - \theta, \psi_0 + \theta]), \ \forall 0 \le x \le N-1 \qquad (2)$$

We say $f(x)$ is θ-concentrated if and only if there exists a ψ_0 so that (2) holds. Using $N-1$ bits and N evaluations of the function (classical oracle calls), we may determine with certainty whether $f(x)$ is one-to-one. Suppose instead one has a quantum oracle U_f encoding an $f(x)$ which is known to be either constant or concentrated. We here present an algorithm which uses $O(1)$ calls to U_f to distinguish between these cases, with arbitrarily high probability.

To describe U_f, we briefly review quantum data spaces [2,6]. The state of a string of quantum bits is encoded as a vector in a complex Hilbert space, say $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$. For qubit-states, the usual convention is that the one-qubit state space is $\mathcal{H}_1 = \text{span}_{\mathbf{C}}\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$, where this basis is Hermitian orthonormal. The n-qubit state space is then the $N = 2^n$ tensor (Kronecker) product

$$\mathcal{H}_n = \text{span}_{\mathbf{C}}\{|b_1\rangle \otimes |b_2\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |b_n\rangle : b_j \in \mathbf{F}_2 = \{0,1\}, 1 \le j \le n\} \qquad (3)$$

The abbreviation $|b_1 b_2 ... b_n\rangle$ for $|b_1\rangle \otimes |b_2\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |b_n\rangle$ is typical, and the Hermitian inner product is that induced by the tensor structure. At times, we further abbreviate the bit-string $b_1 b_2 ... b_n$ within the ket by the associated integer, i.e., the binary expansion. Explicit description of the oracle also makes it simpler to take $2n$ to be our number of quantum bits. We then refer to a *first register and a second register*, according to the tensor decomposition $\mathcal{H}_{2n} = \mathcal{H}_n \otimes \mathcal{H}_n$.

Given this, the conventions for the quantum oracle box are as following. The oracle U_f effects a unitary transformation of $\mathcal{H}_{2n}$ which linearly extends

$$U_f |x\rangle |y\rangle = |x\rangle |y \oplus f(x)\rangle \qquad (4)$$

where $y \oplus f(x)$ denotes $y + f(x)$ mod N and the tensor symbols have been suppressed. Our quantum algorithm then requires $O(1)$ calls to U_f and $O(n^2)$ two-qubit gates otherwise to distinguish with probability arbitrarily close to one between the cases

- $f(x)$ is one-to-one
- $f(x)$ is θ-concentrated

Hence the quantum algorithm in this sense outperforms a classical device using $O(N)$ classical oracle calls to determine whether $f(x)$ is one-to-one with certainty. However, consider instead a probabilistic classical computer, capable of evaluating $f(x)$ on a given random x, $0 \le x \le N-1$. With a single oracle call, such a classical probabilistic computer is likely to detect $f(x)$ is not θ-concentrated with probability $1 - \frac{2\theta}{2\pi}$. Hence $f(x)$ is one-to-one, by hypothesis. Making use of a single quantum oracle call, our quantum algorithm identifies any one-to-one function with certainty, and it correctly identifies a θ-concentrated $f(x)$ with probability $\cos^2\theta$. Taking $f(x)$ one-to-one or θ-concentrated, each with probability $\frac{1}{2}$, further demonstrates that the quantum algorithm outperforms the classical probabilistic algorithm on average for $0 < \theta < 0.3301$ rad, with maximal quantum outperformance at $\theta = \frac{1}{2}\sin^{-1}\frac{1}{\pi} \approx 0.1620$ rad.

2. A Solution with No Quantum Oracle

This section applies to any f: $\{0, 1, \cdots, N-1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, \cdots, N-1\}$ whether $N = 2^n$ or not. In the sequel, choosing $N = 2^n$ makes possible small quantum Fourier transform circuits, i.e., efficient quantum implementations of the Fourier transform of $\mathbf{Z}/N\mathbf{Z}$.

To determine whether $f(x)$ is one-to-one, proceed as follows. We suppose a classical oracle capable of evaluating $f(x)$ and a memory block of size N bits.

```
Initialize each memory bit to 0
for (j=0; j<= N-1; ++j)
{  Use oracle to compute f(j)
    if[ (bit # f(j)) = 1]
    {  report not 1-1
      return }
    Assign 1 to bit f(j) }
report 1-1
```

Moreover, note that there can not exist any oracle-based algorithm which determines whether $f(x)$ is one-to-one while only using $N-1$ or fewer calls to the classical oracle which evaluates $f(x)$.

Since the quantum algorithm will only decide between the one-to-one and θ-concentrated cases with probability very close to one, we also consider competitive probabilistic classical algorithms. For simplicity, suppose now $f(x)$ is either one-to-one or θ-concentrated about 0, i.e., $\psi_0 = 0$ in (2). Given a random number generator, the following algorithm is immediate:

```
Choose a random 0 ≤ x ≤ N − 1
Evaluate f(x)
if [ω^f(x) ∉ exp(i[−θ, θ])]
    report f(x) is 1-1
else
    report f(x) is likely concentrated
```

The probabilistic algorithm fails if and only if $f(x)$ is one-to-one and yet $\omega^{f(x)} \in \exp(i[-\theta, \theta])$, roughly with probability $1 - \frac{\theta}{\pi}$ for n large.

3. A Quantum Variant of Deutsch-Jozsa

The following algorithm exploits a quantum oracle U_f per Eq. (4). It requires two quantum registers, each n bits long.

To distinguish a concentrated from a one-to-one $f(x)$:

1. Prepare the first register as $|0\rangle^{\otimes n}$ and the second as $|1\rangle^{\otimes n}$. Thus the original data state is $|\Phi\rangle = |\Phi_1\rangle \otimes |\Phi_2\rangle = |0\rangle^{\otimes n}|1\rangle^{\otimes n}$.

2. Let $\omega = e^{2\pi i/N}$, for $N = 2^n$. As is well-known [2], there is a quantum circuit, polynomial in size in n, which implements the quantum Fourier transform map: $\mathcal{F}: \mathcal{H}_n \to \mathcal{H}_n$ linearly extending $|y\rangle \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \Sigma_{y=0}^{N-1} \omega^{yz}|z\rangle$. Apply $\mathcal{F}$ to the second register, for $|\Phi\rangle_2 = \mathcal{F}|N-1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \Sigma_{z=0}^{N-1} \omega^{-z}|z\rangle$.

3. Recall the one-qubit Hadamard gate given by $H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \Sigma_{j,k=0}^{1} (-1)^{jk} |j\rangle\langle k|$. Then apply $H^{\otimes n}$ to the first register, with the result that

$$|\Phi_1\rangle = (H|0\rangle)^{\otimes n} = \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)\right]^{\otimes n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle \quad (5)$$

Thus the first register now holds an equal superposition of all states. As preparation for the next step, we also note the full data state:

$$|\Phi_1\rangle \otimes |\Phi_2\rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} \omega^{-y} |x\rangle |y\rangle \quad (6)$$

4. We next apply the quantum oracle U_f. The result is

$$\begin{aligned} |\Phi_1\rangle \otimes |\Phi_2\rangle &= U_f \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} \omega^{-y} |x\rangle |y\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} \omega^{-y} |x\rangle |y \otimes f(x)\rangle \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

Note that a single call to U_f implicitly uses every value of $f(x)$ for a state in full superposition, such as $|\Phi_1\rangle$.

5. We reindex a sum in the last equation as follows. For fixed $x = x_0$, label $z = y - f(x_0)$. Then $\Sigma_{y=0}^{N-1} \omega^{-y} |y \oplus f(x_0)\rangle = \Sigma_{z=0}^{N-1} \omega^{z+f(x_0)} |z\rangle$. As this is true for all x_0, we have

$$\begin{aligned} |\Phi_1\rangle \otimes |\Phi_2\rangle &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{z=0}^{N-1} \omega^{-z+f(x)} |x\rangle |z\rangle \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \omega^{f(x)} |x\rangle\right) \otimes \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{z=0}^{N-1} \omega^{-z} |z\rangle\right) \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

The next step is to disregard the known data $|\Phi_2\rangle$ in the second register.

6. Apply a Fourier transform to the retained register for

$$\begin{aligned} |\Phi_1\rangle &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} \omega^{xy+f(x)} |y\rangle \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \omega^{f(x)}\right) |0\rangle + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{y=1}^{N-1} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \omega^{xy+f(x)} |y\rangle \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

7. Measure the probability that $|\Phi_1\rangle$ is $|00 \ldots 0\rangle$. Recall that the probability of this classical outcome is its square of the amplitude (i.e., coefficient) of $|00 \ldots 0\rangle$ in the coherent superposition $|\Phi_1\rangle$. (9),

$$\text{Prob}(|\Phi_1\rangle = |00\ldots0\rangle) = \left|\frac{1}{N} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \omega^{f(x)}\right|^2 \quad (10)$$

8. Should the classical bits 00 ... 0 be observed, assert that f is concentrated. Else assert that f is one-to-one.

We briefly comment on the quantum computational resources consumed. Besides the $2n$-qubits, $O(n)$ local computations and two n-qubit Fourier transforms are required. The latter require $O(n^2)$ gates [1].

How likely are the assertions of the last step to be correct? Observing $|\Phi_1\rangle = |00 \cdots 0\rangle$ has probability of zero if $f(x)$ is one-to-one, since $\Sigma_{j=0}^{N-1} \omega^j = 0$; we prove below that this observation has probability at least $\cos^2\theta$ if $f(x)$ is θ-concentrated. Hence, to distinguish any one-to-one $f(x)$ from a θ-concentrated $f(x)$ using U_f with probability $1 - \varepsilon$, run at least T independent trials of the above for $\varepsilon > \sin^{2T}\theta$. In terms of ε, as $\log \sin \theta < 0$ we demand $T > \frac{1}{2} \frac{\log \varepsilon}{\log \sin \theta}$.

Proposition: Let $f: \{0, 1, ..., N-1\} \to \{0, 1, ..., N-1\}$, $N = 2^n$ be θ-*concentrated, and continue to denote* $\omega = e^{2\pi i/N}$. *Then*

$$(f(x) \text{ is one}-\text{to}-\text{one}) \Rightarrow \left(\sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \omega^{f(x)} = 0 \right) \quad (11)$$

Hence, the $|0\rangle$ *coefficient of the output* $|\Phi_1\rangle$ *is* 0 *if* $f(x)$ *is one-to-one. On the other hand,*

$$(f(x) \text{ is concentrated}) \Rightarrow \left(\left| \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \omega^{f(x)} \right| \geq N\cos\theta \right) \quad (12)$$

Proof: First, recall that as an N^{th} root of unity, $\omega = e^{2\pi i/N}$ solves $z^N - 1 = 0$. Then

- $z^N - 1 = (z-1)(\Sigma_{j=0}^{N-1} z^j)$
- $\omega \neq 1$
- For $f(x)$ one-to-one, $\Sigma_{j=0}^{N-1}\omega^j = \Sigma_{j=0}^{N-1}\omega^{f(j)}$.

Thus Eq. (11) follows.

Suppose on the other hand that $f(x)$ is concentrated. Then $\omega^{f(j)-i\psi_0} = a_j + ib_j$ for ψ_0 per Eq. (2), and moreover $\cos\theta \leq a_j \leq 1$.

$$\left| \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \omega^{f(x)} \right| = \sqrt{(\sum_{j=0}^{N-1} a_j)^2 + (\sum_{j=0}^{N-1} b_j)^2} \geq \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} a_j \geq N\cos\theta \quad (13)$$

This concludes the proof of Eq. (12). □

4. Comparison of Quantum to Classical

We finally compare the probabilistic classical algorithm with the quantum algorithm above, allowing each a single oracle call. For simplicity we suppose $\psi_0 = 0$ in (2); this hypothesis favors the classical algorithm. Also for simplicity, we suppose $f(x)$ is equally likely to be either concentrated or one-to-one.

Thus $f(x)$ is either one-to-one (event O) or θ-concentrated (event C) with probability $\frac{1}{2}$. Suppose the classical probabilistic algorithm makes one oracle call and then guesses $f(x)$ is concentrated if $\omega^{f(x)}$ lies within the sector $\exp(i[-\theta, \theta])$ and one-to-one else. If $f(x)$ is θ-concentrated, then the classical algorithm makes a correct guess (event G_C). In the one-to-one case, the probability of a correct guess is approximately $1 - \frac{\theta}{\pi}$. So

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Prob}(G_C) &= \text{Prob}(G_C|O)\text{Prob}(O) + \text{Prob}(G_C|C)\text{Prob}(C) \\ &\approx (1 - \frac{\theta}{\pi})(1/2) + (1)(1/2) \\ &= 1 - \frac{\theta}{2\pi} \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

If multiple oracle calls are allowed, it will help to recall x from previous trials and force the oracle to evaluate new values. However, as $N = 2^n$ is expected to be large, this is a minor consideration, and $1 - (\frac{\theta}{2\pi})^l$ is approximately the probability of making a correct guess after l-trials.

In contrast, consider the quantum algorithm. It guesses $f(x)$ is concentrated if $|00\cdots 0\rangle$ is observed and guesses one-to-one else. Thus, in contrast to the classical algorithm, the quantum algorithm never fails if $f(x)$ is one-to-one. If $f(x)$ is concentrated, then the quantum guess is correct with probability of at least $\cos^2\theta$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Prob}(G_Q) &= \text{Prob}(G_Q|O)\text{Prob}(O) + \text{Prob}(G_Q|C)\text{Prob}(C) \\ &\geq (1)(1/2) + (\cos^2\theta)(1/2) \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

Thus the appropriate comparison of the probabilistic and quantum algorithms might be quantified by the difference $\text{Prob}(G_Q)$–$\text{Prob}(G_C)$, i.e., the quantum approach is preferable for those θ with $\cos^2\theta \geq 1 - \frac{\theta}{\pi}$, i.e., $\sin^2\theta \geq \frac{\theta}{\pi}$. The maximum difference occurs at $\theta = \frac{1}{2}\sin^{-1}\frac{1}{\pi} \approx 0.1620$ rad, while applying Newton's method to $\sin^2\theta - \frac{\theta}{\pi}$ shows that the quantum approach is preferable given $0 < \theta < 0.3301$ rad. The right boundary of the interval is approximate.

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